DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 168 025 CS 204 727

AUTHOR Anastasiow, Nicholas

TITLE Oral Language: Expression of Thought. Updated Edition.
INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Urbana, Ill.; International Reading Association, Newark, Del.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 79
CONTRACT 400-75-0029
NOTE 40p.
AVAILABLE FROM International Reading Association, 800 Barkdale Road, Newark, Delaware 19711 (Order No. 840, $1.00 member, $1.50 non-member)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Black Dialects; Cognitive Development; Early Childhood Education; Economically Disadvantaged; Elementary Education; Emotional Development; Informal Assessment; *Language Development; Learning Processes; Motor Development; *Nonstandard Dialects; *Reading Readiness; *Teaching Techniques; *Thought Processes
IDENTIFIERS Information Analysis Product; *Oral Language

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this publication is to explain how a child learns and how language development is related to motor, emotional, and cognitive development. Following a brief introductory chapter, it presents a chapter on how a child learns, divided into the following categories: motor development; emotional development; language development; the rhythmic and motoric basis of learning; and oral language development, reading readiness, and black or poverty English. The third chapter, which outlines teaching techniques designed to develop oral language in preparation for reading, is divided into sections on specific assessment techniques and suggestions for developmental instruction. (GT)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED168025

Oral Language: Expression of Thought

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

Updated Edition

Nicholas Anastasiow
Indiana University

ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
National Institute of Education

International Reading Association
800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware 19711

CS204727

IRA PUBLICATIONS COMMITTEE 1978-79 Harold L. Herber, Syracuse University, *Chairing* • Alison Bellack, Largo (Florida) C & I Center • Janet R. Binkley, IRA • Faye R. Branca, IRA • Norma Dick, Clovis (California) Unified School District • Roger Farr, Indiana University • Margaret Keyser Hill, Southern Illinois University • Jerry L. Johns, Northern Illinois University • Laura S. Johnson, Morton Grove, Illinois • Lloyd W. Kline, IRA • J. E. Merritt, The Open University • Christina Neal, St. Albans, West Virginia • Emma Rembert, Florida International University • James D. Riley, University of Montana • Lyndon W. Searfoss, Arizona State University • Cyrus F. Smith, Jr., University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee • Ralph C. Staiger, IRA • Mary Stainton, IRA • Judith N. Thelen, Frostburg (Maryland) State College • Carl J. Wallen, Arizona State University • Sam Weintraub, State University of New York at Buffalo, Amherst, New York.

ERIC/RCS Staff Editor: Philip Heim

Book Design: Tom Kovacs

Cover Design: Vicki Martin

Published 1979 by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801, and the International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware 19711

The International Reading Association attempts, through its publications, to provide a forum for a wide spectrum of opinion on reading. This policy permits divergent viewpoints without assuming the endorsement of the Association. The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the International Reading Association for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the International Reading Association or the National Institute of Education.

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Anastasiow, Nicholas J.
Oral language.

Bibliography: p.
1. Children—Language. 2. Language arts (Primary) I. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills. II. Title.
LB1139.L3A483 1979 372.6 79-10263
ISBN 0-87207-840-X

To the teachers and administrators who have taught me a great deal about children, particularly Pauline S. Sears, Besse Bolton, Roberta Anastasiow, Henry Gunn, Robert L. West, and the late Lucille M. Nixon and Genevieve Bondurant

Contents

Foreword ix

1. Introduction 1
2. How a Child Learns 4
   - Motor Development
   - Emotional Development
   - Language Development
   - The Rhythmic and Motoric Nature of Learning
   - Oral Language Development, Reading Readiness, and Black or Poverty English
3. Teaching Techniques and Materials 21
   - Specific Techniques for Assessment
   - Suggestions for Developmental Instruction
   - Summary

References 33

Foreword

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information system developed by the U.S. Office of Education and now sponsored by the National Institute of Education (NIE). It provides ready access to descriptions of exemplary programs, research and development efforts, and related information useful in developing more effective educational programs.

Through its network of specialized centers or clearinghouses, each of which is responsible for a particular educational area, ERIC acquires, evaluates, abstracts, and indexes current significant information and lists this information in its reference publications.

ERIC/RCS, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, disseminates educational information related to research, instruction, and personnel preparation at all levels and in all institutions. The scope of interest of the Clearinghouse includes relevant research reports, literature reviews, curriculum guides and descriptions, conference papers, project or program reviews, and other print materials related to all aspects of reading, English, educational journalism, and speech communication.

The ERIC system has already made available—through the ERIC Document Reproduction System—much informative data. However, if the findings of specific educational research are to be intelligible to teachers and applicable to teaching, considerable bodies of data must be reevaluated, focused, translated, and molded into an essentially different context. Rather than resting at the point of making research reports readily accessible, NIE has directed the separate clearinghouses to work with professional organizations in developing information analysis papers in specific areas within the scope of the clearinghouses.

Oral Language: Expression of Thought was originated by ERIC/CRIER at Indiana University, and was edited by Billie S. Strunk. ERIC/RCS is pleased to cooperate with the International Reading Association in making available this updated edition.

Bernard O'Donnell
Director, ERIC/RCS

1 Introduction

A three-year-old sat on the floor, his legs stretched straight in front of him as only the very young can manage. He held a large book in his lap and "read": "The horsie said, 'Come and give me a ride.' I ride horsie far away until I'm all gone. I'm all gone, gone away." The mother smiled proudly even though the child was holding the brightly colored book with a picture of a horse on the cover upside down. Was this child reading? If by the term reading we mean decoding print or graphemics on a page into oral production, the answer is clearly no. If by reading is meant obtaining meaning from the print presented before us, the answer is still no, for the child was remembering and repeating elements of the story he had heard his mother read. Probably the child was stimulated or cued by the picture on the page and "read" the pictures.

The example is not as frivolous as might appear at first glance. It's a very pertinent one for the thesis presented in this brief overview of the relationship between language development and learning how to read. The three-year-old described above had mastered some critical skills. He was demonstrating an awareness that books contain a story; he was recalling that this book contained a specific story about a horse; and he was personalizing that story into his own life and way of thinking. Basically the point of view espoused in this paper is that all learning begins by something happening inside the child—that is, children act upon what is presented in terms of their own experience, needs, and feelings about themselves.

Much of a child's responsiveness is expressed through oral language. Oral language becomes an important indicator of ability to conceptualize and thus of ability to learn to read. But because oral language is such a readily identified communication medium, it is often given more importance in assessing and guiding a child's intellectual development and reading readiness than it deserves. Oral language must be interpreted with caution and understanding. It is only a part of the total development of the child.

Total development involves children's self-concept, their cognitive development, their relationship with peers and adults, and their language development. Children's feelings about themselves determine how comfortable they are in school, how well they perform, and how much control they feel over their own actions. Their thinking or cognitive processes determine their interpersonal relations. And their language provides a means of structuring the world into a symbol system.

Although it is important to remember that language can be both nonverbal, i.e., the sign language of the deaf and body language, and verbal, the focus of this paper is on oral language. For our purposes, oral language means speech or what a child says that can be heard, interpreted, and understood. Speech is an external expression of internal thought. But speech is only a sample of the development a child has attained. What children say depends upon what they want to say, how much they want to say, what level of intellectual development they have attained, how secure they are with themselves as persons, how much they trust you as a teacher, and how well they understand what is going on.

What a child says is only the content of oral language. The meaning must be communicated through word choice and sentence structure, and these depend upon the language system of the culture or subculture. It is obvious that English children speak English and that French children speak French; it may not be so obvious that subgroups within cultures speak a variant of the dominant language. For example, there is ample evidence that black inner-city children and economically less-favored whites in rural sections of America speak a variant of standard English (Anastasiow and Hanes, 1976). These subgroup languages are well developed and conform to a regular pattern just as does standard English. But they are often misinterpreted as indications of a child's poor language facility, poor cognitive development, or lack of readiness to learn to read.

Judith Guskin's (1968) research dramatically shows the negative effects of a child's dialect. She had teachers rate two samples of children's language. Both samples contained exactly the same content. One sample was read by a white middle-class youngster, the second by a black. The teachers rated the black reader as belligerent, delinquent, and retarded. They rated the white reader as coming from a poor environment and a troubled home. Often a child's phonological and morphological production is interpreted as if intelligence can be inferred accurately from the way words are pronounced in discourse and the way sentences are structured.

McNeill (1969), a linguist, suggested that phonology and morphology are the peripheral aspects of a child's language and cannot serve as an adequate assessment of communication skills, much less intellectual functioning.

It is vital that teachers be aware of the danger of misinterpreting language development because a child speaks a variant language, and it is vital, as well, to obtain an accurate sample of the child's language in order to correctly appraise the level of cognitive development and to further language growth as preparation for learning to read.

This paper is intended to clarify the issue by explaining how a child learns and how language development is related to motor, emotional, and cognitive development. It explains the problems peculiar to children who speak black or poverty English. And it suggests ways of assessing a child's development, of further developing language facility, and through it, readiness to read.

As noted earlier, oral language always refers to speech; it does not mean reading aloud. That is another topic.

2 How a Child Learns

Motor Development

A primary-grade teacher who is trying to teach a child to read may find it hard to remember that the child has already had a long history as a learner. He is born with at least two well-developed physical skills. One is the sucking response, the other the thrashing response. He also perceives, and it has been demonstrated that the child of one day of age can be trained to respond to a colored circle as well as to noise. Lewis Lipsitt (1963) of Brown University has conducted an extensive series of studies which indicate that the new-born infant is capable of learning and engages in learning from the time of birth. Infants are born with a variety of reflexes by which to act on the environment (Appleton, Clifton, and Goldberg, 1975). Infants at birth are able to auditorily decode (speech), discriminate visually and act motorically (suck, thrash, etc.). Piaget (1969) maintains that the basic intelligence of the child is constructed by the child during the early months, a period he calls the sensorimotor period. Through the child's perceptions and experiences, internal structures are developed. It is with these internal representations that the child learns to interpret (or think about) the world.

Psychologists believe that children, before three months of age, have a primitive view of their environment. For the first month-and-a-half their hand does not grasp objects; visual focusing is limited to lights or large colored objects such as circles and squares. By four months the infant can distinguish between a bottle and a pacifier and will grasp an object placed in his or her hand. By eight months the child will be able to reach, grasp, pull up, select a larger box from a smaller box. Up to this period the child acts as if an object were not there when it is hidden. At eight to ten months the child appears to realize that objects such as a block are still there if they are hidden by a cloth or cushion. The ten-month-old child will move the cushion or rug to find the toy.

These activities of reacting, grasping, pulling, finding reveal that the child has learned about size, has learned to coordinate vision and hands, can infer causality (the object is there but hidden), and is beginning to develop thinking which exhibits an awareness of space, time, form, size, and objects. These thinking processes are developed through the child's activities and exploration of things in the environment.

According to Piaget (1969) development is continuous up to the age of twelve and beyond, when the child can deal with complex abstract thinking. However, for the purposes of this paper, the focus will be on what the child has accomplished up to the age of six, the time when reading is usually introduced in schools.

By two years of age, a child has gained from experience with objects an awareness of concepts such as cow, table, and ball. By three the child can deal with classes of concepts such as Joe is a man like my father; the pet dog is a dog like other dogs. The three-year-old can also make inferences. Berlyne (1965) gives the example of Johnny, who with interest watched his father shaving. The next morning while he was eating breakfast he heard the water running in the bathroom. He pointed toward the ceiling and said to his mother, "Daddy shaving."

By the time children reach the five- to six-year-old period, their thinking shifts from a personal orientation to a conceptual one. That is, the child changes from thinking in terms of events happening by personal causation (Piaget mentions one child who said the sun was lit by a man with a match and a long arm) to awareness of the world in more realistically conceptual terms. The six-year-old still has difficulty with abstractions such as time, but can handle concepts and symbol systems such as print. To Piaget it is no surprise that schools are teaching reading around six years of age.

Emotional Development

It has been noted that the child develops perceptually and cognitively through the motor system, i.e., the child is active and through activity learns. The child's need to explore the environment and to manipulate objects appears to be critical up to the time of language development and similarly crucial for full intellectual development.

These conditions are equally true for the full self-development of the child. Early experiences are the foundations of emotional life. Psychologists believe that children at birth have no conception of themselves as persons. However, as they thrash and learn to reach, grasp, and pull they also learn about their body and about their ability to control their environment. Probably the first learning for most children is that crying brings food and that food is brought by someone outside themselves. Children learn to differentiate themselves from mother by six months of age. This awareness of individuality is the origin of their self-concept. Thus begins their emotional development, a long process greatly influenced by contact with others.

It is known from studies of infants that a child who has a severely deprived or disturbed environment early in life may not develop normally. Bowlby's (1970), Heinicke's (1956), Spitz's (1946), and Anna Freud's (1941) studies indicate that insufficient stimulation, handling, and interaction with a mothering figure can result in a normal child's regression into mental retardation or even in death. Pavenstedt's (1970) research shows that three-year-olds reared in disturbed families have difficulty relating to others, have little facility for protecting themselves from harm, and have diminished promise of success in school. Studies summarized by Hunt (1961) also indicate the negative effects of a deficient environment on a child.

Although the effects of deprivation may not always manifest themselves in such extremes as those just cited, they do seem evident in a deprived child's emotional development. For example, Skodak (Skodak and Skeels, 1949), after a thirty-year study of a group of adopted and unadopted orphans, found the adopted to be more economically, academically, and socially successful than the unadopted.

A child's success seems directly related to his or her self-concept. Sears (1940) has shown that past success affects what a child will attempt to do. Low-achieving children give up or are entirely unrealistic in what they feel they will be able to do. In the Sears study, a large bag was hung from the ceiling in a nursery school classroom. The bag could be lowered or raised. Children were given a stick and asked to have the bag raised or lowered to the level at which they thought they could hit it. Children who were rated as successful, mature, and well adjusted by their teachers set very realistic expectations for themselves. They had the bag raised or lowered so that they tended to maximize their successes and tried to make the task harder after each success. In a word,

they were very realistic. Children who were rated as unsuccessful and/or immature by their teachers fell into two groups. One group tended to have the bag hung so low as never to fail. The other group had the bag raised so high that they failed at each attempt but still persisted in their unrealistic expectations.

Research has also established a relationship between self-concept and reading success. Anastasiow (1964) found that very bright youngsters who were reading below grade expectations had significantly lower self-concept scores than those who were achieving as expected. In a later study, Anastasiow (1967) found that the negative evaluation of self was more general for girls reading below grade level than for boys who were poor readers, although low achieving boys also rated themselves lower than achieving boys. It was also found that children who were poor readers rated low on many personality dimensions (Anastasiow, 1963).

Suffice it to say that the stability of emotional life will affect a child's total development, and particularly language development. Language, which is first manifested orally around age one, seems most vulnerable to emotional interference. At age two, when most children make rapid language growth, the emotionally abnormal child is very uncommunicative. Infantile autism is most apparent to parents at approximately age two when the autistic child fails to use language normally. (The children in Heinicke's 1956 study area were hospitalized at two, stopped talking, and appeared to regress in their skill development.) Emotional development accompanies physical, cognitive, and language development.

Even though infants are equipped at birth to cope with visual, auditory, and tactile stimuli (Schaeffer, 1977), they do not appear able to control these mechanisms for communication with persons in the environment. Rather, infants possess capacities *upon which* they build later competencies related to speech, language, and communication. The first abilities appear to be automatic and without intent. For example, the two-month-old infant in pain may cry, but it is the ten-month-old (or older) infant who cries in order to seek someone to deal with his or her pain. The capacity to discriminate speech sounds at two months of age appears to be innate and universal as is babbling at three months. Through experiences with the caregiver, in a warm and supportive environment, the infant learns to utilize these mechanisms to build new skills. A major transition occurs at two to three months when infants begin to control their smile and direct it at their primary caregiver. The personal relationship (attachment) between caregiver and

child results in the caregiver talking to the infant, using a range of simple one-word sentences (Snow and Ferguson, 1977).

From these experiences, around five months of age the child begins to determine that speech sounds contain meaning. Consider for a moment the magnitude of this learning. From the vast array of voices, intonation, modalities, and rhythms the five-month-old child begins to isolate sound patterns into meaningful structures. The six-month-old child can easily recognize the words *milk* or *bottle* regardless of whether mother, father, sister, or babysitter says the word.

This accomplishment illustrates a basic principle of development. In the early stages of language development identification precedes performance. Before saying a word, such as *milk*, a child has learned to recognize the word and understand its meaning. This principle is also true in learning to read. Before children can read, they have to learn that speech sounds can be represented by print or that print or letters have sound values. It has been demonstrated that if children do not learn that speech sounds convey meaning by the age of five years they may never learn this skill. Fortunately such cases are rare.

Once a child learns that speech contains meaning, word acquisition and sentence construction follow rapidly. First to appear are one-word sentences such as "Daddy" when the child hears a car door slam, meaning "Daddy has come home." Two-word sentences appear next; "Me go," "Jane won't" are typical. Some children skip rapidly into complex sentences. The following gives a brief overview of the major accomplishments in speech as adapted from Lenneberg (1967):

> Coos at twelve weeks; turns head to search for speaker at sixteen weeks; babbles sounds that resemble one-syllable utterances at six months; begins to differentiate between words at ten months; has definite repertoire of words at eighteen months; has vocabulary of fifty items at two years; produces many three- and five-word utterances at thirty months; has a thousand-word vocabulary at three years; has well-established language at four years.

Most English-speaking children master passive voice by age six when they can utilize the phonological and morphological rules of English. McNeill (1969) points out that the Russian language has more complex phonological structures than English, and the Russian child does not master these structures until about seven. Russian children begin school at seven, while English and American children begin at six. Thus, McNeill feels the child's mastery

of the phonological and morphological structures of the language is the key to the culture's and the school's determination of children's readiness to read. As Stauffer ('969) states, oral language is the basis by which the child makes the transition from oral to printed language.

Research supports the relationship between oral language development and reading success. Hildreth's (1964) summary indicates that:

1. Words children use in their own speech are easier to read in print than words they do not use
2. The richness of the child's language is related to reading success
3. Deficient readers are deficient in oral language
4. Speech defects are related to reading problems

Kirk (1940) suggests that a child cannot excel in reading without a good oral language foundation. And it has been demonstrated that speech therapists' ratings of children's articulation and spontaneous verbal fluency identified 75 percent of those children who were unsuccessful in reading achievement whether they were taught by "look-say" or by a linguistic method (Anastasiow, 1965, 1966). These studies demonstrate the relationship of oral language to reading success. That is, good readers appear to have well-developed language systems.

Language Development

The child who at five months responds to speech sounds has learned that among all the sounds present in the environment, speech sounds contain meaning. Cognitive (or thinking) development enables the child to master this skill. The argument over whether or not language development is an innate human capacity does not apply here, since the discussion is limited to what learning language represents. Whether English or French, the child apparently *learns* the arbitrary grouping of sounds that stand for a word such as *dog*. The ability to say it may be innate, but the specific symbolic representation for the four-legged creature perceived—whether the perception be called *dog*, *chien*, *hund*, or *cane*—must be learned. The mastery is cognitive, and the child's speech is a sample of both cognitive mastery and language development. The same is true of reading. A child learns the letter-sound correspondence, but must also bring meaning to the words read. Without doing so, the child cannot be a successful reader.

Children's unique sayings often reveal their learnings more clearly than do their accurate statements. Consider the five-year-old who told his parent, "The principal is going to show us how to make holes with fire tomorrow." This boy knew how to use his father's drill to make holes. What his teacher had said was, "The principal told me that tomorrow we are going to have a fire drill." The child's language was reflecting his experience and thinking.

Teachers are familiar with youngsters who have specialized knowledge derived from extensive home experiences. The intelligence and accomplishments of these children often are overestimated because of the unique vocabulary they possess. A similar false assumption underlies the frequent underestimation of the poverty, shy, or black child's ability because of failure to produce standard form.

The important point being stressed here is this: what children say may reflect how they think, but what they don't say does not necessarily reflect that they are not thinking, that they are thinking poorly, or that they cannot think at all.

In summary, the preceding discussion of motor, emotional, and language development presents the idea that a child's cognitive functioning is directly related to motor, emotional, and language growth. In each of these areas, the child moves from gross and loosely differentiated states to more and more finely differentiated systems. Table 1 displays these similarities.

Table 1

Fourfold Development from Infancy to Five Years

Function	Age		
	0–1 month	2 years	5 years
Motor	Thrashing, sucking	Walking, climbing	Running, skipping, jumping
Emotional	No awareness of "I"	I gonna, I do	I and you
Cognition	Turning toward light	Object constancy	Concept mastery
Language	Turning toward noise	One-word sentences	Passive voice

The Rhythmic and Motoric Basis of Learning

We have briefly traced a child's motor, emotional, language, and cognitive development. We have also suggested that each area plays a role in learning to read. Now let's consider the importance of rhythm as a factor in learning achievement.

Theory

In 1964 Drake demonstrated that rhythm and reading success are related. But just why they are related had not been clear until recently, when psychologists studying memory and thinking made some interesting findings. Neisser (1967) suggested that the key to understanding memory may be in the rhythmic nature of how information is stored. Broadbent (1965) describes how information is understood and stored, and posits a central processing agent located in the brain, which acts upon an incoming message as a pattern rather than as isolated bits of syllables or single words. These researchers have thus supported the idea of the rhythmic nature of memory and thinking.

Other researchers have carried this idea further by stating that language development is also rhythmic. A linguist (Martin, 1970) has suggested that it is the essential rhythmic quality of speech that children respond to and thereby decode according to their degree of language development. Palermo (1978) states much the same idea in his most recent theory.

Merle Karnes (1970) of the University of Illinois has done extensive work with handicapped, normal, and poverty children. From ten infant scales, she has drawn descriptions of the total development of the child, particularly language and cognitive ability. Her description of the eighteen- to twenty-three-month-old child is of interest here, since this period is the turning point in the use of language as a means of expressing thinking processes.

The child "jabbers tunefully to himself at play, echoes prominent or last word addressed to him, enjoys nursery rhymes and tries to join in, attempts to sing, likes to have patterns repeated, likes to have short rhymes sung to him, is aware of sounds such as bells, whistles, clocks, responds rhythmically to music with whole body and joins two or more words in speech." (These items were derived from the Slossen's Intelligence Test, Gesell, and the Bayley Developmental Scales.)

From two to five, children also master new motor skills. They usually learn to run backwards, jump, pick up pins, eat with a

fork, play interactive games, and walk on tiptoe by three years of age; by four they enjoy rhythm and repetition, catch a bounced ball, hop on one foot, and have well-patterned inflection. Five- to six-year-olds can run lightly on their toes, skip on alternate feet, dance to music, balance on a narrow path, draw a triangle, and trace a diamond; they also continue domestic and dramatic play.

In sum, five- to six-year-olds have integrated their emotional, language, thinking, motoric, and interpersonal skills into a unity that is a functioning whole—ready for academic tasks. They reveal in each milestone along the way the rhythmic and motoric basis of their accomplishment.

Theory Application in Curriculum Development

Is this a new view? Not completely. As a result of their work with and observation of children, progressive and modern educators had intuitively arrived at curriculum procedures which stressed the importance of rhythm before the research evidence was available to support their practices.

Some programs, however, have focused on only one part of the child's development. Lest one be misled into believing that simplistic miracle methods lead to reading readiness, it seems advisable to mention them briefly here. Although these programs may result in the child's mastering some skill, their success is probably a result of tapping into the underlying system of rhythm. One such program emphasizes motor skill development. Certainly motor skill development is an essential element in total child development, but the "creepy-crawly" schools misperceive the underlying role of rhythm in motor development as well as the relationship of self-concept, language, and thinking skills to this development. These programs stress physical involvement in isolation from social-emotional-linguistic development. Another type of program with narrow emphasis is the "drill and practice words" groups which stress acquisition of words in isolation from motor-social-emotional-linguistic development. Both programs do provide experiences which involve the child, but they do not develop the total child.

Other programs, however, have a broader emphasis. They stress the importance of rhythm in learning and attempt to develop the total child. Many of them do this through emphasis on play and dance.

Anthropologists have long contended that through play, individuals express their conceptions of the universe and their relations

to the world. Further, Bateson and Mead (1942) have stressed the idea that through play and dance peoples express those basic elements of nature that their culture has socialized them to repress. They believe that forms of joy, sorrow, hate, envy, and aggression can be expressed in drama and dance that cannot be displayed openly in the daily interactions of a group. The Balinese, for example, are a highly restrained group of people. They rarely express human emotions in interpersonal relations. Their festivals, however, include expressive, excessively vigorous and at times violent emotions, resulting in the dancers falling into a trance state. Dance, a form of "play," can be a release of inner tensions and feelings that do not have other means of expression.

According to these theories, play is a manifestation of cognitive structures. Once these nonverbal-cognitive structures are developed, play becomes a means of externalizing them.

But play is also a means of developing cognitive structures. According to Piaget (1969), the basic development of thinking processes is motoric. He has described how all children go through stages of play as means of developing their conceptual thinking. Play, to Lieberman (1977), is a means the child uses to deal with the known and, through exploration, to combine new elements into new combinations resulting in imaginative and creative thinking. According to Neisser (1967), the basic elements of thinking are rhythmic and motoric. Therefore, meaning or understanding can be accomplished by the child in play.

Modern educators recognize that structured play allows for learning. When observed in play, a child displays the learning already accomplished; but also revealed are the child's poorly developed concepts. For example, a child acting out fireman may call for a resuscitator but at the same time not understand the phrase *overcome with smoke* and its accompanying concepts. The child following the play experience usually will verbalize the new understanding realized through play. Knowledge of what firemen do may be expressed, as might the complex idea that individuals develop and perform specialized roles in modern society according to the work they perform. Play in this sense provides the foundations necessary for the child to learn how to read. The child in beginning reading will be able to decode only those specific words already mastered in the child's own language and will recognize only those ideas already learned. This is not a new idea. This is essentially Hymes' (1955) notion of the role of experience in reading and Stauffer's (1970) emphasis on the bonds among work, action, thought, language, and experience.

Let us now take this notion of the role of play in learning one step further. It has been asserted that through play children become physically involved; they are able to act out and reveal what they already have accomplished, to recognize for themselves what they do not know, and to reveal their strengths and needs. In addition, play is an opportunity for children to express their nonverbal intelligence enabling them to attach verbal symbols to knowledges they develop. By attaching verbal symbols to nonverbal activity, children take great steps toward readiness for conceptual reasoning and readiness for formal reading programs.

Reconsider for a moment the earlier point that play is a motoric-rhythmic means of learning. In this light dance is quintessential play, one medium of expression which may unify a child's experience and help to integrate and consolidate growing competencies.

Such a conception of dance is part of the program of the open school, with its emphasis on human values and on helping the child to achieve the complex set of abilities related to efficient thinking, i.e., classification, conservation of mass, volume, energy, measurement, and problem-solving techniques. Though commonly overlooked in descriptions of the open school, dance and movement experiences are an essential aspect of the curriculum. These are not incidental activities in this system but planned structured experiences similar to the place of math experiences in American education.

Guppy (as quoted in Russell, 1965) has described the importance of these experiences as follows:

> Creation, therefore, one might define as a form of thinking in which the hands or some other means are used as extensions of the brain, with which to fix images and solve problems—an elaboration in man of the brain's prime role in maintaining the organism in security. And a finished creation is a projection of some part of the creators' inner model of reality. . . . For some people . . . words and signs provide the imageries most important to them; for others sounds, shapes, patterns, colors, taste, smells, sense of touch, physical movement. . . . (pp. 51-52).

Guppy's statement is similar to the assertion made earlier in this paper. Play, which is observed in the infant as a rhythmic activity and which is described by Piaget and Inhelder (1969) as an attempt to seek pleasure and avoid pain, grows for the child into a means of learning about the environment, learning concepts, learning roles. Play also becomes a means of expressing nonverbal learnings and communication. Finally, dance and play have a

social nature, and they become a means by which children relate to each other. These activities involve the total child; through them motor, emotional, language, and cognitive development increases. Through them the child learns.

The popular author James Michener (1976) recognized the importance of dance. He thought it desirable that a son or daughter who was determined to be a writer take a course in dancing so that he or she would come to know the feel of movement and form, and learn to sense dramatic shifts in perspective. He writes, "What the artist requires is a sense of emerging form, a kinesthetic sense of what the human body is capable of. If you marry those sensory capacities to a first rate brain, you have a good chance of becoming an artist" (p. 80). Michener quotes George Leonard: "If one subject were to be required in school it should be some form of dance—from nursery school through a Ph.D." (p. 80). Dance is seen here as the integrating experience of humankind.

Some American educators have maintained outcomes of movement, dance, and art experiences similar to those of the English Open School leaders. These Americans have asserted that artistic expression is a means whereby a child accomplishes academic goals, specifically reading success.

Natalie Cole (1940) in her book *Arts in the Classroom* described how a class of Mexican-American and poverty children with poorly developed academic skills gained success in school-related skills through experiences with art and dance. Cole encouraged these children to express their thoughts and feelings through painting or dancing. She also encouraged the children to write and talk about these expressions. Gertrude Copley Knight, mentioned in the Cole book, is another who espouses the role of dance as an integrating experience. Her film *Building Children's Personality Through Creative Dance* (1954) demonstrates how children can move from inhibited, clumsy, awkward expressions in dance to secure and graceful youth. Her techniques are simple and, although not derived directly from research evidence, are consistent with newer findings. She rewards movement and never punishes or shames the child in dance. Through her own dancing, she demonstrates (or models) for the child but does not expect or desire the child to imitate her dancing per se. The children are encouraged to construct their own movement to the music. The encouragement of each child's interpretation is the key to Mrs. Knight's success. The child's interpretive movement to music is not essentially different from the child's attachment of meaning to speech

sounds or the grasp of concepts such as that clay is conserved when broken into bits, that letters have sound values, or that 2 + 2 = 4. Interpreting is a manifestation of the inner thinking of the child.

It would appear that the common element that draws the cognitive psychologists, such as Neisser and Piaget, to these intuitive educators, Cole and Knight, and to modern curriculum constructors such as Kamii (1978), Meisel (1977), and Weikert (1969) is the common premise contained in each of their work: all knowledge is constructed by the child based on his or her own activity. Cole and Knight as well as the English educators further assert that dance and movement consolidate learnings and provide the essential integrating experience the child requires for later academic tasks.

This discussion has suggested that all learning is basically motoric in nature and that speech is a manifestation of thinking and language development; that only activities which involve the total child in the development of emotional, motor, cognitive and language expressions have the potential of maximizing the intellectual potential available to the child at birth.

Oral Language Development, Reading Readiness, and Black or Poverty English

Keeping in mind that facts (1) that language development is only one aspect of a child's total development; (2) that it is influenced by and influences each of the other areas of development, i.e., motor, emotional, and cognitive; (3) that it should not be stressed in isolation but rather developed in conjunction with the other areas; and (4) that oral language is only one part of total language development, let us now consider the special problems of oral language development and reading readiness in a child who speaks black or nonstandard English.

The early literature in the 1960's was replete with suggestions that the poverty child was deficient in language development (Deutsch, 1965). It was postulated that the poverty child's deficiencies stemmed from harsh punishment in the home, the different parent training methods used, poor diet, excessive noise in the home, and mental deficiency. Gradually researchers began to realize that the language of the poverty and black groups was not so much deficient as it was different. Linguists were the first to break through with the "different" hypothesis. They maintained that any language which functionally serves its members is a viable

and sufficient language. Linguists working in ghettos in New York, Detroit, and Washington, D.C., began to collect remarkably similar data. Black English, as it was called, proved to be a well-developed variant of standard English. Its rules were uniform and consistent, but they contained elements which were drastically different from standard English.

One of the most obvious differences is really a surface one. It is the use of standardly rejected forms such as *ain't got* for *don't have, he don't* for *he doesn't, ain't,* and *got.* These forms often give the incorrect impression that a child is intellectually inferior. For example, a black child might say, "Dat bird done brung lots of grass to dat tree." The language of the child is different from standard English, but it is of a consistent form and reflects the child's thinking. The thinking revealed in the sentence is the same as if the child had said, "The bird is taking grass to the tree" (Rhodes, 1970).

The major points of difference between black and standard English appear in the set of rules used for verb declensions, copula usage, negative rules, pronominal opposition, /r/ and /l/ deletion, consonant cluster reduction, and devoicing of a word in a final stop consonant. For example, a black or poverty child will say *he* for *he'll, do* for *does, got hit* for *was hit, before you eat* for *before eating, look at* for *watch, did he did* for *if he did.*

Following Neisser (1967) who maintains that function words, i.e., *if, when, although,* are the key elements around which meaning is understood in a spoken sentence, we can assume that a black child when decoding black English hears different markers, around which meaning is obtained.

A study with black inner-city children (Anastasiow et al., 1969), supports the view that children reconstruct all auditory input. The study was designed to demonstrate also that children who speak a variant of standard English reconstruct the standard form to conform to their own dialect. It was known from the work of Menyuk that children when asked to repeat a well-formed sentence would repeat only the portion of the sentence that matched their level of development. Thus, if language deficient, the inner-city child would not repeat all of the well-formed sentence. Repeating the complete sentence indicated the child was "normal," at least in language development. It was known also that black children were able to repeat sentences spoken in black dialect better than were white middle-class children, while white youngsters were able to repeat standard English better than black youngsters (Baratz, 1968; Slobin, 1967; Menyuk, 1963).

Twenty-eight sentences that had the possibility of being reconstructed into black English were constructed by Anastasiow and Hanes to conform to standard English. Children were asked to repeat what the experimenter said. Simple examples were used until the child understood the directions. For example, the child was asked to repeat the sentence, "The sun is shining," when the experimenter spoke it. As soon as the directions were understood the child was asked to repeat the twenty-eight sentences, one of which was:

> He runs home quickly after school because he has a bicycle to ride.

All sentences were scored for errors and for reconstruction. Reconstructions were defined as any change in the sentence that maintained meaning but changed the standard form to the black English equivalent. An example highlights the results. It was found that 41 percent of first-grade children and 42 percent of second-grade children changed the word *while* to *when* in the following sentence: "Did the accident happen while your mother was in the store?" Similar data were obtained in other sentences. The children, with very little delay in response, modified what they were asked to repeat to conform to their own language.

Because black or poverty English is different from standard English, it is easy to misinterpret a child's oral language development. Such speech is often viewed as an indication of poorly developed language and thinking abilities rather than as only a different language. Reading readiness and learning potential are also often misjudged as a result of performance on standardized measuring instruments. For example, Timmy, a poverty child in North Carolina, was erratic, uncontrollable, and, in almost every respect except physical development, judged by his teachers and the staff to be immature and "un" ready for school. He was a handful, and his wild running, skipping, jumping, hitting drove the teacher and researchers to their limits. They failed to recognize that his well-developed sense of rhythm and motor abilities were a cue to his innate ability and that he was not as slow as they suspected. He was administered a Stanford-Binet which indicated that he was mentally retarded. When he was asked to respond to the Peabody Language Development Kit, he pointed out objects in the picture rather than telling a story. However, one day as he sat pounding on the piano he began to sing a song, the text of which follows. (The observer did not write the dialect that the child spoke, but the reader can almost "hear" the dialect in the rhythm of the song.)

The horse jumped, zoom
The boy jumped, zoom
The boy and the horse jumped
Zoom, zoom, zoom.

The horse jumped, zoom
The boy jumped, zoom
The horse and the boy jumped
Zoom, zoom, zoom.

Come on baby
Sing about me.
Come on baby
Sing about me.
I'm singing about me
Come on baby, sing about me.

Let's go baby
Sing about me.
Let's go baby
Sing about me.
Baby, baby, ba ba baby
Come on baby, zoom, zoom, zoom.

Come on baby
Sing about me.
Come on daughter
Sing about the girl.
Come on baby
Sing about me.
Sing about the bottle
Come on baby
Let's go get married
Let's go get married
But don't put me in jail or
I'll knock you down with the telephone
And put you out
Pow, pow, pow
I'm dead.

This was a child who the teachers and project personnel felt had underdeveloped language and poorly developed thinking processes. Clearly, his training to be "task oriented" and his preparation to respond to the demands of school were poor. These were foreign skills to him. School was a strange and hostile environment, as was his neighborhood if his song was any indication. However, his vocabulary, his concept of what tone is, and his rhythm were sufficiently mature to enable the teacher to build an appropriate program for his school success. His language reflected his emotional life and his conceptual development.

In accurately assessing a black or poverty child's language development, a teacher must recognize that the oral response of many

such children is limited because they are unaware of the importance of oral production. Their culture does not always emphasize or reward verbalization; therefore, they may possess an undeveloped expressed language facility in school. The fact that a child speaks little does not mean that the child cannot speak. The key to reading success for such youngsters is not writing basic readers in dialect as some maintain but training these children in auditory discrimination to enable them to match the standard form spoken in the classroom with their own language. Teaching techniques should begin at the child's current level of functioning and should allow a positive self-evaluation. They should not reject the child's language, but rather provide activities (clapping, dancing, catching, dramatization) that encourage mastering the standard language.

Verifying an approach is not the issue here. The Weikart (1969) and Cooper et al. (1966) approaches all have demonstrated success with poverty youth. As Weikart suggests, the method of success, in fact, depends upon the teacher's belief in the approach the teacher uses. What appears to be important is that the approaches that are most successful are those that are cognitively oriented. A cognitive approach is one in which instruction is geared to encourage the children to actively construct the experience presented in class in terms of their current level of competency. Children must be allowed to experience those elements they are to learn, for that is the way learning takes place. Children's speech is a sample of what they know, no more, no less, and their oral language is the base on which teachers can build a curriculum.

3 Teaching Techniques and Materials

Because a child's language development is influenced by and influences motor, emotional, and cognitive development, because each of these areas is related to rhythm, and because the development of each of them is related to a child's ability to learn to read, classroom techniques designed to develop oral language in preparation for reading should include activities that simultaneously develop these other areas as well. The techniques and materials included in this section are designed to do this. In the discussion of each, special emphasis is placed on their use in assessing and developing the oral language of children who speak black or poverty English.

Specific Techniques for Assessment

Before specific developmental activities can be initiated, it is necessary to assess the child's level of language and cognitive development. This can be done in various ways. However, as indicated earlier, it is all too easy to misinterpret a child's use of a "different" language or hesitancy to use any verbal language as a sign of immature cognitive development. Regardless of the choice of assessment techniques, care must be taken to assure an accurate measurement.

The Dictated Story

The dictated story technique is simple and effective. Briefly, the child is allowed to draw or paint a picture and is then encouraged to "tell a story" about the picture. The story may be told directly to an aide, parent, or teacher who writes it down. The adult may directly "chart" the story while the child is speaking, or may write it down and give it back to the child later. Returning the child's own story, even though the child cannot read, develops several important skills and assists the teacher:

1. It helps encourage the full use of language by the child.
2. It gives the teacher some behavioral evidence of the child's language and thinking.
3. It is a warm and supportive environment for the child and encourages self-acceptance.
4. It helps the child recognize that what is spoken can be written down.
5. It directly leads to the awareness that print has sound values.
6. It directly leads to the awareness that print can be read.

Large charts can be prepared for the whole class to read. The class as a group can dictate a story that:

1. Summarizes what was presented in sharing and gives the teacher evidence of what was processed and what was remembered, i.e., "John has new shoes," "Mary has a baby brother."
2. Summarizes a story or news item a child told during sharing more fully.
3. Summarizes an activity in the classroom, i.e., the teacher brings in a bird's nest and the class talks about it. Children then write (dictate) a story about it.
4. Rewrites a story read to the class in the child's own words. The teacher then checks for the sequence of what was remembered.
5. Presents on a chart words of a song that the class has learned.

Puppets

Puppets are excellent motivating devices for children's speech. Cooper (1964) uses a puppet as a symbol of communication activities. The Peabody Language Kit includes animal puppets. Many teachers have learned through experience that a child who is reluctant to talk to an adult will speak to a hand puppet. (Puppets can be made from many simple materials; for example, colored paper figures can be glued to tongue depressers or popsicle sticks.)

After the puppet has been made, ask the child to have the puppet tell a story. This should be a story that has already been presented to the class, i.e., "Billy Goats Gruff." Listen to the child's presentation and check for: (1) ability to recall story, (2) ability to see sequence, (3) ability to find detail, (4) ability to make inferences, and (5) ability to see relationships. This tech-

nique is one way teachers can assess the level of a child's cognitive functioning.

Sentence Repetition

Besides being willing to accept a child's dialect, a teacher must attempt to provide a model of standard English. The teacher must be a skilled diagnostician in order to discriminate between immature production and dialectical differences. This is extremely difficult. The sentence repetition task is one technique. Encouraging production in rhymes and jingles is another. Songs and dictated stories give further samples of the child's language.

It is the teacher's responsibility to select appropriate experiences on which to base a diagnosis. Presenting a series of songs such as "Row, Row, Row Your Boat" and "Mary Had a Little Lamb" may be diagnostic but may fail to distinguish specific deficits in /r/ and /l/ deletions which are common in black dialect from the /r/ and /l/ which are common problems in every kindergarten class, e.g., as in *wing* for *ring*.

The sentence repetition lists presented below (the first three of which were taken from Slobin, 1967) have been developed for research with the very young child. The child is asked simply to repeat what the instructor says. Brown and Fraser's sentences are designed for three- to four-year-olds, Menyuk's for a similar age. Children of these ages should be able to complete the entire group of sentences. If a portion of any sentence is eliminated, assume that the child has not moved to that level. These are experimental procedures and the results must be interpreted generously. Lenneberg's (1967) work gives a complete description of normal language development.

Brown and Fraser's Sentences

I showed you the book.
I am very tall.
It goes in a big box.
Read the book.
I am drawing a dog.
I will read the book.
I can see a cow.
I will not do that again.
I do not want an apple.
Do I like to read books?
Is it a car?
Where does it go?
Where shall I go?

Menyuk's Sentences

Transformation Type	Sentence
Passive	He got tied up.
Negative	He isn't a good boy.
Question	Are you nice?
Contraction	He'll be good.
Inversion	Now I have kittens.
Relative Question	Where are you going?
Imperative	Don't use my dough.
Pronominalization	There isn't any more.
Separation	He took it off.
Got	I've got a lollipop.
Auxiliary *Be* Placement	He is not going to the party.
Auxiliary *Have* Placement	I've already been there.
Do	I did read the book.
Possessive	I'm writing daddy's name.
Reflexive	I cut myself.
Conjunction	Peter is over here and you are over there.
Conjunction Deletion	I see a red book and a blue book.
Conjunction *If*	I'll give it to you if you want it.
Conjunction *So*	He saw him so he hit him.
Conjunction *Because*	He'll eat the ice cream because he wants to.

Gleitman, Shipley, and Smith's sentences evolve from ones that are easy to imitate to ones difficult to imitate:

A Structures (easy to imitate)

Number	Two of the marbles rolled away.
Conjunction	Sam and Ronny built their house.
Complement	I want to play the piano.

B Structures (difficult to imitate)

Adjective	They played with long yellow blocks.
Verbal Auxiliary	Daddy may have missed the train.
Relative	The lady who sneezes is sick.
Conjunction Inversion	Not George but Danny came along.

The Anastasiow and Hanes (1976) sentences are those designed to elicit reconstructions from white standard to black and poverty English. The correct sentence and its acceptable equivalent are given below.

He was tied up.
got
She isn't a good singer.
ain't no
She said, "Whose toys are those?"
say
Jim, who tried to escape, was caught and then beaten up.
got
Although I want ice cream, I bet I'm not going to get any.
ain't gonna
The boy was hit by the girl who jumped rope in the street.
got
Joe is good when he feels like it.
be feel

The black child who changes the sentence is demonstrating normal cognitive functioning but presenting the product in a dramatically different form. These reconstructions may then be perceived inaccurately by teachers as errors rather than as evidence of the child's remarkable ability to process a different form of language while maintaining meaning. The child's reconstructions are examples of an active intelligence upon which the teacher may build a strong readiness program. Evidence that the child can reconstruct, rather than omit, indicates an understanding of a different form of English. Therefore, there is no need to change the child's speech to enhance understanding. Instead, the teacher should master this language form as well as provide ample opportunities for the child to hear and process standard forms. In this way, speakers of nonstandard form are provided with experiences that will help them readily recognize a word's written form as well as its oral form.

Suggestions for Developmental Instruction

Once a child's level of language and cognitive development has been determined, instruction begins. As with assessment, various approaches are possible. Those discussed here are based on the theories presented earlier; therefore, several points should be reviewed before continuing.

First, play is perceived as an integral part of any preschool or kindergarten program. As one kindergarten teacher so aptly put it, toys are the tools with which children think. The discussion gave examples of the importance of play and the role it serves in developing thinking processes.

Second, dramatization of stories, songs, or rhymes is another major activity for any preschool or kindergarten program. Teachers may select from a wide range of readily available material to serve for dramatization. The important point is to plan systematic and frequent experiences. Dramatization engages the child in thinking, the most critical activity of all school experiences. Puppets and finger plays add a rich dimension to dramatization.

Third, dance can be a daily activity. Responding to and moving with the beat of a drum, records, or songs are cultural expressive experiences. There is a large variety of records to choose from, many of which are prepared specifically for classroom free dance. However, any type of music can do—from rock to Scottish folk songs or Bach. (Scarves are useful to encourage children's full body movement.)

Fourth, play and dramatization allow the child to be physically involved. All humans must be active, but particularly the young child. It is through these activities that children learn.

Finally, multiple experiences are recommended: field trips, walks, chart stories, songs, dictated stories. It is the manner in which the teacher presents the activity and concepts to the child that is critical.

The position taken in this paper is that all learning is done by the child. It is the teacher's role to encourage, nurture, and plan for learning. Any direct attack on a child's language is a direct attack on the child's thinking ability and this can have overwhelmingly negative effects.

Georgia Cooper's Approach

Mrs. Cooper is a child development specialist who is also a trained speech therapist. Her major interest is to bring both sets of talents to bear in devising a curriculum approach to further children's communication skills development.

In her early work she came to recognize the essential rhythmic quality of speech and the rhythmic basis of learning. Working with capable but immature children in Contra Costa County in California, she evolved an approach that conforms very well with current research evidence as summarized above. Only the highlights of

her approach can be described here. A more complete description is found in Cooper (1964, 1968) and in Cooper and Anastasiow (1970). Because these materials are not commercially available, they will be described in some detail below.

The program is a multisensory approach which builds upon the child's existing competencies and encourages active participation in auditory decoding, speech production, and the formulation of analogies among the heard, spoken, and written symbol systems.

For the preschool child the written symbol is not presented, but letter names are used to characterize the sound, and the alphabet may be taught in relation to the sequence of sounds taught rather than in alphabetical sequence.

The methods and materials suggested by Cooper encourage the child's rhythmic-physical involvement (movement, clapping) by using dramatization, chalk patterns, ball rhythms, jingles, and rhymes. These techniques stimulate speech production and auditory discrimination. The children are encouraged to analyze their own speech and language by listening and speaking, so that they can be personally responsible for carrying their development forward. Lessons constructed by Cooper contain every possible consonant-vowel combination. Consonants in beginning, medial, and final positions are presented in the framework of jingles, rhymes, and single-word object identifications.

The lessons begin with "get-ready" activities which have the children focus on what is to be learned. The purpose of "getting ready" is to bring children to a listening focus. This can be accomplished in various ways: through finger plays, music, poetry, stories, or relaxation exercises related to dramatic play.

Following these initial activities, the lesson progresses through various stages. The rhyme is introduced, perhaps through a jingle. (Jingles rather than poetry are used for practice because their rhythms are more often the rhythms of bodily movement than are those of poetry.) Then stage one begins. It includes clapping and/or some type of body rhythm. The teacher chants the jingle as teacher and children clap together. Children are invited to join.

Words, preferably those ending with the consonant being experienced, are associated with hand dramatization or movement devices which aid speech production. Stage two includes large muscle and vocal involvement with the child. Specially improvised ball rhythms involve the teacher and children in throwing and catching. When children throw and catch as they chant the jingle, both their coordination and speech stability are developed.

Stage three includes chalk or pencil patterns to move the arm with the rhythm of the jingles. Chalk patterns are an exercise of adding to rhythms, movement, and verbalization the visual pattern resulting from keeping time with the chalk. It is considered a pre-writing exercise by Cooper. The emphasis is on freedom of movement rather than precision. Stage four includes the teacher's production of the consonant in the context of a word, usually with an object present, i.e., pencil, paper, paper clips, or popcorn. Stage five includes lip-reading by the child and object identification. The technique of reading lips is used because it is seen as a visual stimulation—another avenue to speech production. To recognize visually the overall rhythm of speech and the shape of consonants and vowels is an aspect of discrimination that is important for all children as well as for those with dulled hearing.

Additional steps with older children (six- and seven-year-olds) include reading the jingle on a chart, tracing letters and words with their hands, and copying the charts. Auditory and vocal qualities are stressed. The movement devices are provided to stabilize production and discriminations as well as vocalization. A crucial aspect of the program is that children are not to feel any negative evaluation of self in the process of attaining the specific goals in the stages.

One sample from Cooper's lessons is given below:

Dramatizing a Jingle

Polly

Polly put some popcorn
In a big, iron pot.
Then she stirred the fire
So that it was hot.
Pop! Pop!
Poppety-pop!
Poppety! Poppety!
Pop
and
STOP!

(Make certain that the children have had experience with popcorn.)

Read the jingle with light, sure rhythm, with crisp diction, and with enjoyment. Without talking about it you are modeling the production of clear, dramatic speech.

Now the children are ready to dramatize the story in the jingle. Of course, there is no one way. The main thing is to have them participate as directly as possible. The term *pot* may need to be discussed and also the kind of fire that would need stirring.

Who could show us how popcorn looks before it is popped? Can you be the popcorn seed? Now the fire is hot and the popcorn pops! Can you pop? etc.

> Children are never given any information until you, the teacher, have first tried to get the information from them. In this kind of activity it is important that you not slow up the movement by too much discussion. However, when ideas for dramatization are being generated, you are encouraged not to show the children what to do. Children are helped by being stimulated to make a relevant response to what is being presented. In the beginning, at least, any relevant response is accepted. And even when the response does't seem relevant, there may be some association in the child's mind that makes it so to him; therefore, you should be careful even here.
>
> The children make a circle forming the pot. Four or five (or more) are the popcorn. You will want a Polly, of course. The story in the jingle suggests the action.
>
> A record of the children who have played the main characters is kept so that eventually all children have a chance to act while the others speak. Always stop the activity a little too soon rather than have some of the children become restless.
>
> You are seeking a rhythm and a timing that will not tax your more immature children and yet will satisfy all of them.

Loban's Approach

Loban (1968) recommends an emphasis on children's use of dialect to express their feelings and their thinking processes. Loban encourages the teacher to accept the child's language as it is and to explore the full range of language. He encourages teachers of preschoolers to place emphasis on activities that encourage children to talk. Tape recorders can be used to help them focus on their own speech; they can also be used to have them dictate their own stories. One of the major problems in working with some poverty children is that they do not talk readily. Encouraging and accepting their dialect is the first step in both assessing and developing their language.

Let's examine one of Loban's example sentences and construct a hypothetical dialogue between the teacher and a child to demonstrate how assessment and teaching interplay.

> The child, pointing to a picture, says: "Dat bird done brung lots of grass to dat tree."
>
> Teacher (smiling): "Yes. The bird is bringing grass and twigs to the tree. What is he doing with the grass?" (Recognition of child's cognitive awareness and testing children's concept of nest building)
>
> Child 2: "He done eat it?"
>
> Teacher: "That's one idea. Birds eat seeds so they might take grass with seeds to the tree. Do you have another idea?"

Child 3: "He gonna make a nest."

Teacher: "Yes. He's making a nest. Do you know why he's making a nest?"

Following these interchanges, the teacher may present a song about birds and nest building. The teacher can pick any rhyme or song to help children stabilize the pattern. Note that expansion is quite different from correction. Correction would be:

Child: "*Dat* bird *don brung* . . ."

Teacher: "*That* bird *brought* . . ."

with the teacher placing voice stress on *that* and *brought*. Expansion as a technique implies acceptance of the idea the child is communicating; the teacher is building on what was communicated by incorporating and expanding.

As noted earlier, a teacher may wish to accept a child's dialect, but he or she must also attempt to provide a model of standard English. The teacher must be a skilled diagnostician, constantly trying to separate immature production from dialectical differences. This is an extremely difficult task. Encouraging production in rhymes and jingles is one means of remediation.

However, systematic attention must be given to the range of speech sounds produced normally in connected discourse. Presenting the alphabet letters and having children repeat them is not viewed as a fruitful technique. Cooper's jingles, the speech poem in *Talking Time* (Scott, 1951), and Ruth Jackson's *Language Experiences Kit* (1967) are but three examples of material developed for classroom use.

Summary

This paper attempts to clarify some relationships between children's language and children's thinking. The premise is simple: children's speech is a reflection of their level of development and their thinking processes. Speech can reflect the child's level of language mastery or the child's mastery of a language different from the standard system.

The child desires to please and must have information from the teacher about progress made. Positive knowledge of results is one of the most powerful tools a teacher has.

The young child pressures the teacher to consider him or her totally, and no assessment other than of the child's total development is an accurate one. Children are, like every human being, emotional, thinking, and social beings. Their strengths and deficits are revealed through all of their actions. These behaviors are the bits of information upon which a teacher must base an instructional program.

References

Anastasiow, N. J. "Success in First Grade as Seen by Teachers: Gough's Adjective List and Teachers' Rating," *Psychological Reports*, 13 (1963), 403-07.

Anastasiow, N. J. "A Report of Self-concept of the Very Gifted," *The Gifted Child Quarterly*, 8 (Winter 1964), 177-78, 189.

Anastasiow, N. J. "Evaluation of the Story Reading Program," Progress Report #1. Palo Alto, California: Palo Alto Unified School District, Research Department, 1965. (mimeo)

Anastasiow, N. J. "Evaluation of the Story Reading Program," Progress Report #2. Palo Alto, California: Palo Alto Unified School District, Research Department, 1966. (mimeo)

Anastasiow, N. J. "Sex Differences in Self-concept Scores of High and Low Ability Elementary Students," *The Gifted Child Quarterly*, 11 (Summer 1967), 112-16.

Anastasiow, N. J., and Hanes, M. L. *Language Patterns of Poverty Children.* Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1976

Appleton, T., Clifton, R., and Goldberg, S. "The Development of Competency in Infancy," in F. D. Horowitz (Ed.), *Review of Child Development Research.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

Baratz, J. "Language in the Economically Disadvantaged Child: A Perspective," *ASHA*, 10 (1968), 143-45.

Bateson, G., and Mead, M. *Balinese Character, A Photographic Analysis.* New York: New York Academy of Science, 1942.

Berlyne, D. E. *Structure in Directions in Thinking.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965.

Bowlby, J. *Attachment and Loss.* New York: Basic Books, 1970.

Broadbent, D. E. "Information Processing on the Nervous System," *Science*, 150 (October 1965), 457-62.

Cole, N. *The Arts in the Classroom.* New York: John Day, 1940.

Cooper, G. *Developing Communicative Skills with Young Children.* Pleasant Hill, California: Contra Costa County Department of Education, 1964.

Cooper, G. *Opening Windows.* Durham, North Carolina: Education Improvement Program, Duke University, 1968.

Cooper, G., and Anastasiow, N. J. "Developing Communication Skills, A Readiness Guide for Kindergarten." Bloomington, Indiana: Institute for Child Study, Indiana University, 1970. (mimeo)

Cooper, G., Hatch, B., and King, P. *Wings Emerging.* Pleasant Hill, California: Contra Costa County Department of Education, 1966.

Deutsch, M. "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry,* 35 (1965), 78-88.

Drake, C. "Reading, Writing and Rhythm," *The Reading Teacher,* 18 (1964), 202-05.

Freud, A. *The Ego and the Mechanism of Defense.* New York: International University Press, 1941.

Guskin, J. *The Social Perception of Language Variation: Black and White Teachers' Attitudes towards Speech from Different Racial and Social Class Backgrounds.* Ph. D. dissertation, University of Michigan. University Microfilms, 1970. No. 71-4619.

Heinicke, C. M. "Some Effects of Separating Two-year Old Children From Their Parents," *Human Relations,* 9 (1956), 106-76.

Hildreth, G. "Linguistic Factors in Early Reading Instruction," *The Reading Teacher,* 18 (1964), 172-78.

Hunt, J. *Experience and Intelligence.* New York: The Ronald Press, 1961.

Hymes, J. L., Jr. *Behavior and Misbehavior: A Teacher's Guide to Action.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1955.

Jackson, R. M. *An Experience-Centered Language Program. Teachers Resource Guide.* Pasadena, California: Franklin Publications, 1967.

Kamii, C., and DeVries, R. *Physical Knowledge in Preschool Education: Implications of Piaget's Theory.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1978.

Karnes, M. B. "Developmental Guide." Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1970. (mimeo)

Kirk, S. *Teaching Reading to Slow Learning Children.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1940.

Knight, G. C. *Building Children's Personality Through Creative Dance.* 16mm film. Color or b/w. 30 minutes. Producer: Lawrence P. Frank. Distributor: Indiana University Film Library.

Lenneberg, E. *The Biological Foundation of Language.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967.

Lieberman, J. N. *Playfulness: Its Relationship to Imagination and Creativity.* New York: Academic Press, 1977.

Lipsitt, L. P. "Learning in the First Year of Life," in L. P. Lipsett and A. C. Spicker (Eds.), *Advances in Child Development.* Vol. 1. New York: Academic Press, 1963.

Loban, W. "Teaching Children Who Speak Social Class Dialects," *Elementary English,* 45 (1968), 592-99.

Martin, J. "Rhythm-Induced Judgments of Word Stress in Sentences," *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior,* 9 (December 1970), 627-33.

McNeill, D. "The Development of Language," in P. Mussen (Ed.), *Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1970.

Meisels, S. J. "A Personal-Social Theory for the Cognitive Developmental Classroom," *Viewpoints*, 52:4 (1976), 15-22.

Michener, J. A. *Sports in America.* New York: Random House, 1975.

Menyuk, P. "A Preliminary Evaluation of Grammatical Capacity in Children," *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 2 (1963), 429-99.

Neisser, V. *Cognitive Psychology.* New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1967.

Pavenstedt, E. *The Drifters: Children of Disorganized Lower Class Families.* Boston, Massachusetts: Little, Brown, 1970.

Piaget, J. *The Psychology of the Child.* New York: Basic Books, 1969.

Rhodes, O. O. "Some Implications for Teaching Reading to Speakers of Black Dialect," *Viewpoints*, 46:3(1970), 117-47.

Russell, J. *Creative Dance in the Primary School.* London: MacDonald and Evans, 1965.

Schaffer, H. R. *Studies in Mother-Infant Interaction.* New York: Academic Press, 1977.

Scott, L. *Talking Time.* St. Louis: McGraw-Hill, 1951.

Sears, P. S. "Levels of Aspiration in Academically Successful and Unsuccessful Children," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 35 (1940), 498-536.

Skodak, M., and Skeels, H. M. "A Final Follow-up Study of One Hundred Adopted Children," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 75 (1949), 85-125.

Slobin, D. "A Field Manual for Cross-cultural Study of the Acquisition of Communicative Competence." (Second draft, July, 1967). [ED 015 434].

Snow, C. E., and Ferguson, C. A. *Talking to Children: Language Input and Acquisition.* New York: Cambridge University Press, 1977.

Spitz, R. A. "Anaclitic Depression," *Psychoanalytic Study of Children*, 2 (1946), 313-42.

Stauffer, R. G. *Directing Reading Maturity as a Cognitive Process.* New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

Stauffer, R. G. *The Language-experience Approach to the Teaching of Reading.* New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

Weikart, D. P. *Ypsilanti Carnegie Infant Education Project. Progress Report.* Ypsilanti, Michigan: Ypsilanti Public Schools, Department of Research and Development, 1969.